GRAMMAR of ENGLISH.

ARMSTRONG

A

GRAMMAR OF ENGLISH,

PARTS I. AND II.,

BY

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PREFACE.

The purpose of this book is to bring the teaching of grammar in line with the new work in English, that the pupil may receive the right start. In the first place, the "Science of Grammar" is not primarily intended to teach the pupil "to speak the English language correctly," but to subserve the purpose sought for in all other branches of study, namely, to train and to draw out the mind; it may afterwards serve the useful purpose of telling the pupil whether an expression is grammatically correct or incorrect. Moreover, Grammar is inextricably entangled with Rhetoric and Logic, and is, therefore, not to be unadvisely put into the hands of children. Their minds can memorize the forms and a few other of the simple facts, but such drill as this affords were better found in History, Geography. &c. When their growth begins to develop the logical powers of the mind, such a severe study as Grammar may be given them. As this point is reached at widely differing times by different individuals, no fixed age for beginning the study of Grammar can be given; it must depend upon the judgment of the teacher.

The best place to learn to speak the English language correctly is found in the association of those whose English is pure, and this place should be found for the child in the home. The few

moments of recitation are as nothing in the balance against hours of intercourse with companions. Those parents that allow their children to play with arabs and, in the South, with negroes, are allowing irreparable damage to be done, to say nothing of the moral question involved. It is no uncommon thing, though perhaps not so frequent as in former years, to hear a Southern boy, reared on a plantation, fall with some little excitement into the negro dialect. "Dah 'e go!" he cries, as a rabbit breaks from cover and jumps for life. But this is not the worst of it, for many inaccuracies, there learned, cling through life to his every-day speech. You may tell him of them time and again, and he replies he knows they are wrong, but he forgets. If theoretical knowledge and practice are at variance, all your teaching of "good grammar" is seed sown in stony ground, so far as speaking English correctly is concerned.

In the historical study of the language, phonology now occupies a very important place, taking up, for instance, in the Cook-Sievers *Grammar of Old English* about half of the book, yet the treatment of Etymology in the ordinary Grammar is insufficient and misleading, if not altogether false. Very few writers of Engligh Grammar are qualified for their work by acquaintance with modern Philology, and the few grammarians that have such qualification are as a rule confined to this higher sphere of study and are unable to adapt themselves to the needs of beginners; yet pupils must be so trained in the preparatory schools that there shall not be a

mass of superstition to unlearn before even a begin-
ning can be made upon the preparatory work which
should be finished before the college course 'is
begun. It is the object of this Grammar to give
such preparation, and in giving it to afford a thor-
ough logical drill. In this edition, Parts I and II
are given, and so much of Part III as will indicate
the method of parsing to be used. Part III, Con-
structions, will be ready a year later. It is the in-
tention to treat the Syntax of English just as the
Syntax of a foreign language is treated for learners.

In the preparation of Part I (Sounds), acknowl-
edgement of indebtedness is made to Sweet's *Hand-
book of Phonetics*, Sievers's *Grundzüge der Phonetik*,
and, for the physiological discussion, to the lectures
and the private experiments of Dr. Techmer of the
University of Leipsic. In the treatment of the rest,
many grammars have been consulted, but the
author desires to express his acknowledgement of
the debt due his former instructors, Prof. T. R.
Price, now of Columbia College, and Prof. R. E.
Blackwell, of Randolph-Macon, who started him
aright in the study of English, and who have ever
been ready to lend a helping hand.

<div align="right">JOSEPH L. ARMSTRONG.</div>

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CONTENTS.

ENGLISH GRAMMAR.

INTRODUCTORY.

English Grammar treats of the sounds, the forms and the constructions of the English Language, and will be considered under the three heads thus indicated.

Under **Part I** will be treated elementary sounds, the manner of their formation by the organs of speech, and their combination; under part **Part II**, the forms and the use of the Parts of Speech; and under **Part III** will be discussed the rules of joining words together to form sentences—Constructions.

PART I.

SOUNDS.

I.

INSTRUMENTS OF SOUND.

1. The organs of speech consist of the lungs and wind-pipe, the larynx; the pharynx, and the mouth.

2. The upper end of the wind-pipe is enlarged and is called the **larynx** ('Adam's apple'). Within the larynx are fastened two elastic ligaments. They close the end of the wind-pipe like lips, and are so devised that they can open and shut, lengthen and contract very much as do the lips. These ligaments are called **vocal chords,** and the space between them, the **glottis.** Lying upon the top of the larynx and closing it is the **epiglottis,** a muscular valve which opens by raising its rear edge and turning it back against the root of the tongue.

3. The **pharynx** is the cavity between the larynx and the mouth, and may have its size and shape modified by the various positions that can be assumed by the tongue, cheeks, &c.

4. The **mouth** is the space between the lips. It is sometimes loosely used as a name for mouth and pharynx. The context will indicate where it is so used here.

5. The 'roof of the mouth' consists of the hard (the front) palate and the soft (the back) palate. From the rear extremity of the soft palate depends the **uvula** which can swing backward and forward and which, when pressed back, serves as a valve to close the passage into the nose. When this passage is left open, or partly open, nasalization of the vowel follows.

6. If the vocal chords are kept widely separate, that is, if the glottis is wide open, while air is driven out by compression of the lungs, only the friction of the outflowing **breath** is heard. **Voice** is heard when the laryngeal lips, the cℎords, are brought so close together that the air, as it is forced out, causes them to vibrate. An intermediate position, when the chords are almost close enough to vibrate, gives **whisper** (in the phonetic sense).

7. The current of air, forced out of the lungs, whether the glottis make it voice, whisper, or breath, suffers two kinds of modification: first, by the shape of the pharynx and lips; secondly, by the kind and the place of the resistance with which it meets. The position of the tongue, compression or distension of the cheeks, rounding or widening of the lips, modify sound by modifying the shape of the passage; and the forcing of the current of air over the pharyngeal surfaces, through narrowed passages, or checking it, superimposes other peculiarities.

II.

ANALYSIS OF SOUNDS.

8.   **Voice** is sound produced by vibration of the vocal chords.

9.   A **Vowel** is voice modified by some definite adjustment of the parts of the mouth, but without audible friction.

10.   **Glides** are transitional sounds produced during the passage from one position to the next.

11.   A **Consonant** is the result of audible friction, squeezing or stopping of the breath in some part of the mouth.

12.   A **Diphthong** is the combination of a full vowel with a glide-vowel, which may go before or come after the full vowel.

A.

Vowels in Accented Syllables.

13.   Vowels are classified, according to the position of the tongue in making them, into **front** (made in middle and front of mouth) and **back** (made in back of mouth); sometimes called 'palatal' and 'guttural,' respectively.

14.   In the following classification, the different vowel sounds are indicated in such manner as was possible with the font of type used.

GUTTURALS.		PALATALS.	
(Back Vowels)		*(Front Vowels)*	
1.	*äh* as in *a*rm, f*a*ther.	8.	*ä* as in p*a*t.
2.	*ó* " n*o*t, wh*a*t.	9.	*á* " br*a*nch.
3.	*â* " *a*ll.	10.	*à* " f*a*te.
4.	*o* " n*o*te.	11.	*ee* " m*ee*t.
5.	*ü* " r*u*le, m*oo*n.	12.	*e* " m*e*t.
6.	*oo* " w*oo*d.	13.	*ê* " *e*rr.
7.	*u* " t*u*b.	14.	*i* " p*i*n.

The learner should practise, both orally and by written exercise, till he can unerringly describe and pronounce any vowel-sound by itself.

Examples:—'not,' vowel-sound *ó*; 'rude,' vowel-sound *ü*; 'eight, 'vowel-sound *à*; 'mach*i*ne,' vowel, sound *ee*; 'hurt,' 'bird,' vowel-sound *ê*.

Any book will furnish a practice-list of words.

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B.

Vowels in Unaccented Syllables.

15. By 'unaccented syllables' are meant here those that have the least stress of voice. All back vowels (together with ê in err), when they become obscure, as in such syllables, approach the sound of *u* in upon,' and *û* may serve for the symbol of this obscure vowel; while all front vowels (except ê) tend in like situation to sound like *i* in d*i*vide and may be written *î*. In rapid speech, *î* is apt to pass into *û*.

Examples: ability (*û*bility), sofa (sof*û*), oppose (*û*pose); filigree (fil*î*gree, or fil*û*gree).

C.

Glides.

16. The tongue must have one position to make *k*, and another to make *i*. To pass from the one to the other requires time, however infinitesimally short; and, the stream of breath continuing, a transitional sound is produced. Since position of some part of the mouth must be changed every time a new vowel or consonant is made, it follows that the sounds must be connected by the **glide** so long as the flow of breath is uninterrupted. In such cases, the changing parts naturally take the directest route. Glides are called 'on-glides' and 'off-glides,' as they precede or follow a sound, and there may be vowel-glides as well as consonant-glides.

(*a*) It must be carefully noted that the off-glide-vowel usually stops before it reaches the vowel position toward which it is moving.

17. Besides these 'direct' glides, there are 'roundabout' glides. Suppose a glide from the *k* to the *u*-position and on, without stopping, to the *i*-position, and kw*i* (as in 'quit') is the result, where *w* represents the glide past the *u*-position.

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D.

Consonants.

18. The nature of a consonant is determined (1) by the part of the mouth in which it is made, and (2) by the form which that part assumes.

(1.)   There are, roughly speaking, four positions

(*a*) **Lip**—including consonants formed by lips, or lips and teeth ; as *p, f.*

(*b*) **Front**—including those formed by the end of the tongue with the help of the gum or the teeth ; as *t, th.*

(*c*) **Middle**—including those formed by the front part of the tongue with the help of the hard palate ; as *sh, j.*

(*d*) **Back**—including those formed by the back of the tongue with the help of the soft palate ; as *k, ng.*

Note.—A simple sound may have a compound formation, as *w*, in making which the lips and the back are used at the same time.

(2.)   According to form, there are two main classes, **open** and **shut**. By the term 'open' is meant that the stream of breath, more or less squeezed in passing, is allowed to flow on out of the mouth ; and, by the term 'shut,' that the stream of breath is stopped.

(*a*)   Varieties of open consonants are *l,* in forming which the middle of the passage is closed and the sides left open ; the *nasals,* whose formation requires that the mouth be closed while the nose-passage is left open ; and the trilled *r,* made by a rapid vibratory motion of the end of the tongue.   This *r* is infrequent in America, the usual *r* being made by a weak squeeze with a downward and slightly forward motion of the tongue.

19.   There remains to be considered another modification of consonants.   According to the definition, consonants are the result of audible friction, squeezing, or stopping, of the breath.   If the vocal chords remain passive, the consonant is said to be **voiceless;** if, however, a hum of the vocal chords

accompanies the formation of the consonants, the consonant is said to be **voiced.**

(*a*)   Theoretically, then, consonants exist in pairs, voiceless and voiced, and they are in fact generally so found.   It will be noticed that the so-called 'liquids,' *l, m, n, r,* are voiceless when initial, and voiced when medial or final in a word.   In the table below are found 29 elementary consonants, which added to the 14 elementary vowels, give 43 elementary sounds.

20.

		LIP.	FRONT.	MIDDLE.	BACK.	LIP-BACK
Voiceless.	Open.	f m	s th r l n	sh	h nk	wh
	Shut.	p	t	tch	k	
Voiced.	Open.	v m	z dh r l n	zh	ng	w
	Shut.	b	d	j	g	

(*a*)   The sound of *tch* is found in ma*tch,ch*ur*ch* ;
    "   "   " *dh* is the *th* in *th*en ;
    "   "   " *zh* is found in a*z*ure, plea*s*ure.

The pupil should be carefully drilled till he can tell how and where a consonant is formed.

(*b*)   The line of division between vowels and consonants is not always clear, some sounds passing from one to the other class almost imperceptibly.

III.

SYNTHESIS OF SOUNDS.

A.

Diphthongs.

21.   The long vowels in English have a diph-thongal tendency which is very decided in certain

positions, as the *à*-sound in th*ey*, where the off-glide is very distinct.

22. "The glide-vowels can be held or lengthened into true vowels without destroying the diphthongic character of the whole combination, provided the continuity of stress be observed."—(*Sweet*.) Thus the off-glide in *ï* (as in h*i*gh) may be carried on into the *ee* without destroying the diphthong.

23. There are five diphthongs recognized by grammarians—*ï* (h*i*gh), *i* (h*i*ght), *oi* (b*oi*l), *au* (n*ow*, h*ou*se), and *yü** (m*u*te).

(*a*) Besides these, there are others, more or less distinct, according to the value of the glide, such as the *à*-sound in 'vale' the *ar*-sound in 'far.'

It is, however, unnecessary to give an extended list here, a careful application of the definition being sufficient to discover them. Moreover, some diphthongs are secondary, that is, dependent upon position. The *a*, for instance, becomes a diphthong in 'hay,' 'veil,' where it is final and where it stands before an *l*, but not in 'take,' where it precedes a *k*.

B.

Sounds Adjacent.

24. It must be carefully borne in mind that a letter is not a sound, but the symbol of a sound, and that in English several of these symbols often represent the same sound; moreover that the same

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*The English *y* is often weakened into glide—(*y*h), as in 'you,' 'young,' . . . ." (Sweet.) Sweet, however, in his specimens of sound notation, represents the *y* as a consonant; but I fail ordinarily to distinguish any "audible friction"in the formation of the sound in American pronunciation, and prefer, with Dr. Morris, to recognize the long *u* always as a diphthong The *y*, in the occasional instances in which it occurs, as a consonant, is found, according to my observation, in the pronunciation of those who give the front sound to *h* in such words as 'hue' (where the *h* is squeezed), but this is not a regular sound in English.

symbol often represents various sounds; and that the alphabet is insufficient for the number of sounds.

25. A **syllable** is an elementary sound, or a combination of elementary sounds, uttered with one impulse of the voice.

26. A **word** consists of one or more syllables, and is used to express an idea.

27. The distinction between 'long' and 'short' belongs to consonants as well as to vowels, the *n* in 'ma*n*,' for example, requiring more time than the *nn* in 'ma*nn*er." "In English, final consonants are long after short, short after long vowels, as in 'hill,' 'heel.' *L* and the nasals are long before voice, short before voiceless consonants, as in 'build,' 'built.'" (Sweet.)

28. A syllable may, therefore, be long while the vowel is short. In 'bit,' vowel and syllable are both short; in 'bid,' the vowel is short, but the syllable is lengthened by the protraction of the consonant.

29. By **open syllable** is meant one that ends in a vowel ; by **closed syllable** is meant one that ends in a consonant; as in *ha*-ter, *hat*-ter.

30. It may be taken as a general rule that the longs, *ä*h, *o*, *ee*, *ï*, *ü*, are found in open syllables, while the shorts, *ŏ*, *u*, *ä*, *e*, *i*, and the half-long diphthong *ì*, are found in closed syllables; as fä*h*-ther, but fä*t*-ter; n*o*-ble, but kn*o*t-ty f*ee*-ling, f*e*llow, &c. The long sounds are sometimes indicated by doubling, or by a combination, such as *au*, *ou*, *aw*, *ow*, and especially in final closed syllables, by an appended silent *e*, as mat*e*; but m*e*t.

31. There is a constant effort on the part of the

tongue, which must fly with lightning-like rapidity
from position to position, to take the straightest,
easiest route. It is, in part, this never-ending at-
tempt at adjustment of sounds that brings about
changes in pronunciation; and, while the sounds
within a syllable, being uttered with one impulse of
the voice, naturally have a potent mutual influence,
this influence is strongly felt between the syllables
also. A difficult sound, or combination of sounds,
is apt, by anticipation, to affect a sound in the pre-
ceding syllable. An example of this within the
syllable is found in §27; and the occasional trans-
position in rapid conversation, of the initial conso-
nants, is an instance of the second case. The *th* in
'with,' 'beneath,' tends to become voiceless when a
voiceless consonant immediately follows; etc.

32. According to strict phonetic analysis, divi-
sion of syllables is made by the beginning of each
new voice-impulse. In English, this impulse de-
creases in force to the end of the syllable, enabling
the ear the more readily to distinguish between
syllables, but it sometimes occurs that an impulse
ends with the on-glide of a consonant and the new
impulse begins with the off-glide of the same, so
that a syllable might end, so to speak, in the middle
of a consonant. On account of this and of the
faulty sound-symbolization in English, it is impos-
sible to indicate accurately the division of syllables.

33. Syllabification must be made to lend its help
to sound-notation. The general rule, therefore, is,
in accordance with §30, that a single consonant goes
with the following syllable, and that two or more are

divided between the preceding and the succeeding syllable. It is a rule without exception, however, that the syllabification should be so adjusted as best to represent the sound of each syllable; thus ma-jor, but mal-a-dy; per-e-grin-a-tion.

(*a*) It is always a safe rule to take care that a syllable shall be left open when the vowel is long, and closed when the vowel is short. Combinations like *th*, *sh*, represent elementary sounds and are therefore not to be divided. Such as *st*, *tr*, when preceded by a consonant, always go with the following syllable: ac-tress, in-stance; and they do so when alone, if the following syllable is the accented one: a-troc′i-ty, de-stroy′.

34. **Accent** (or stress) is "the comparative force with which the separate syllables of a sound-group are pronounced." (*Sweet.*)

(*a*) There is no limit to the degrees of force in accent. Even the so-called unaccented syllables have a slight stress, or they would not be heard. It is unnecessary to notice—and indeed it would be impossible to register—all these degrees. The stress of a word varies with its use, and even the relative stress of the syllables is not always the same.

35. It is sufficient to note three degrees of stress: **primary, secondary, weak.**

(*a*) It should be constantly borne in mind that these terms are only relative. The primary accent in one word may be no stronger than the secondary in another; it is meant that the primary is the strongest accent in this particular word.

(*b*) In English, there must in general be an alternation of stress, such as primary-weak, or secondary-weak, or primary-secondary, or the reverse. Primary is marked (′) secondary (″), and weak is left unmarked, as in crim″i-nal′i-ty. In this word, the *ty* has more stress than the first *i*, and that

more than the *i* in the fourth syllable; but for the purpose of indicating pronunciation, two diacritics are sufficient. One, however, does not suffice; consequently, Webster and several other authorities leave the pronunciation of a number of long words uncertain.

36. **Emphasis** is sentence-stress. Just as change in the position of word-accent so changes its features as often to make it unrecognizable, so variation of emphasis may change the meaning of a sentence.

(*a*) The consideration of this subject belongs more properly to elocution, to which the further treatment of it is left.

PART II.

FORMS.

37. Words are divided, according to their meaning and use, into eight classes: Noun, Pronoun, Adjective, Verb, Adverb, Preposition, Conjunction, Interjection.

38. A **Noun** is the name of a particular object, or set of objects (to which it is permanently attached).*

39. A **Pronoun** is a name that may be applied to any one of all objects (but is not permanently attached to it).

40. An **Adjective** is a word used to describe or define the meaning of a Noun or a Pronoun.

41. A **Verb** is a word that declares or asserts.

42. An **Adverb** is a word used to modify the meaning of a Verb, an Adjective, or an Adverb.

43. A **Preposition** is a word used to show the use of Nouns and Pronouns.

44. A **Conjunction** is a word used to connect words, phrases and clauses (and shows the relative value of the terms connected).

45. An **Interjection** is a word used as an exclamation, and has no grammatical connection with the other words of the sentence.

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*The portion of definitions found in parentheses is merely explanatory and may be omitted when reasons are assigned in parsing. It serves in this instance to call attention to the true distinction between the Noun and the Pronoun

I.

NOUNS.

46. There are two classes of Nouns, **common** and **proper**.

47. A *common Noun* is a name applied to each one of a set of objects possessing certain features in common, as *horse, chair, table.*

48. A **Proper Noun** is a name given absolutely to an object, without reference to its characteristics, as *Raleigh, John, North Carolina.*

49. Nouns have four properties: *Gender, Person, Number, Case.*

A.

Gender.

50. "*Gender* is a grammatical distinction, and applies to *words* only. Sex is a natural distinction, and applies to *living objects.*" (*Morris.*)

(*a*) Formerly gender depended upon endings for its distinctions; but since English has lost the great body of its inflections, gender has come to correspond more nearly with sex.

51. Gender is of three kinds: **Masculine, Feminine, Neuter.**

52. Nouns that name male beings are masculine; those that name females are feminine, and those that name things without sex are neuter.

(*a*) When a Noun may name either a male or a female, or both, it is said to be *common.*

(*b*) Neuter objects may by personification be considered as male or female.

B.

Person.

53. **Person** is a property by which the person speaking (the *first* person), or the person spoken to (the *second*), or the person spoken of (the *third*) is indicated.

54. Nouns usually indicate the third person. They may by address indicate the second person, but they can never of themselves indicate the first, though they are sometimes said to be of the first person by apposition with a pronoun of the first person.

C.

Number.

55. **Number** indicates whether one or more than one is meant.

56. There are two Numbers: the **Singular**, which is used when only one thing is meant; and the **Plural**, used when more than one are meant.

57. In English, the stem (the base-form) of a Noun is found in the singular.

58. The Plural of a Noun is **regularly formed** by adding **es** to the Singular: box, *boxes*; church, *churches*.

(*a*)   This is the case when the Noun ends in a middle consonant, or in -*s*, or in -*z*, or in (though not always) -*o* preceded by a consonant.

(*b*)   When the Noun ends in a silent *e*, it is dropped before the *e* of the Plural: house, *houses*.

(*c*)   The *s*, in -*es*, has the sound of *z*.

(*d*)   Some nouns ending in an *f*-sound—(-*f*,-*ff*,-*fe*) change

(*f*) *f* to *v* and drop the *e* from *fe*: leaf, *leaves ,* knife, *knives ;* staff *staves,* (also *staffs,* in certain senses.)

59. The Plural is *irregularly formed*:

I. By adding **-s**.

(*a*) This form is derived from the regular Plural by dropping the *e* whenever the pronunciation will admit of it; and by it the majority of Nouns are pluralized: book, *books ;* boy, *boys ;* valley, *valleys ;* folio, *folios.*

(*b*) The *-s* has its proper voiceless sound after a voiceless consonant; but it becomes a voiced consonant (*z*), in sound, after a vowel or a voiced consonant: hat*s,* ape*s ;* but boys (boy*z*), tubs (tub*z*).

(*c*) Some Nouns whose stem ends in *th* change it to *dh* when the *-s* is added, and the *s* then becomes *z* in sound (voiced with voiced): pa*th,* pa*ths* (padhz) ; oa*th* oa*ths* (oadhz), &c.

II. By adding **-en**, with or without other changes: ox, *oxen ;* brother (in one sense), *brethren ;* child, *children.*

(*a*) The *r* in *children* is the remnant of another plural termination to which *-en* was afterwards appended.

III. By **Vowel-change**: man, *men ;* woman, *women* (wimmen) *;* foot, *feet ;* goose, *geese ;* tooth, *teeth ;* mouse, *mice ;* louse, *lice.*

IV. By using the **unchanged stem**: *swine, sheep, deer, shad.*

(*a*) Certain words, such as *brace, dozen, pair, yoke, cannon,* follow this rule to indicate more than one of the same kind when the number is given, and add an *s* to indicate different kinds, or when there is no numerical limitation: three *pair* of gloves ; but, in *pairs ;* &c.

60. The Plural of **letters** and of **figures** is formed by adding 's, and any part of speech, referred to as a word, is often treated in the same way: "Dot your *i's*"; "Three *4's*"; "He uses too many *I's* and *me's* and *my's*."

61. Words taken from foreign languages and not yet anglicized form the Plural according to the language from which they are taken: genus, *genera;* stratum, *strata;* phenomenon, *phenomena.*

NOTE.—Peculiarities in the formation of the Plural should be learned from use and from dictionaries.

D

Case.

62. The **Relation** of a Noun to the other words of a sentence is shown in three ways:

I. By **Position**; as, '*Men* build *houses*,' where it is known that *men* is the subject, *houses* the object, by their respective positions.

II. By an **Ending**; as, 'Lord *Marmion's* steed rushed by.'

III. By a **Preposition**; as, 'We silently gazed *on* the *face of* the *dead*.' The Preposition takes the place of the Ending.

63. **Case** is the use of a Noun (or of a Pronoun) to show its relation to the other words in a sentence.

(*a*) Case may be indicated either by an ending or by position. In II, the *s* shows that the word is in the Genitive; in I, the position shows that ' men ' is in the Nominative.

64. English has four Cases, which include all the

uses of the Noun (or of the Pronoun) except those
shown by a Preposition.

65. The Cases are **Nominative, Genitive, Dative,
Accusative.**

(a) This nomenclature is adopted for several reasons. The
various uses gathered under these Cases agree in their main
points throughout English, German, Latin, and Greek; and
when a pupil, familiar with the names in English, comes to
Declension in these other languages, he has that much less to
learn.   An instance of how much trouble a little thing can
give is found in the unnecessary change in order of position
of the Cases in Sweet's *Grammar of Old English*, where
beginners never fail to become confused.

In the next place, although instances of the Objective Geni-
tive may be rare in Modern English, they nevertheless exist,
and there is no such advantage in the name 'Possessive' as
would warrant its retention.   In fact, that name invariably
causes the beginner to confuse the Genitive of the Pronouns
with Possessive Pronouns.   'Objective' is a word used in
various significations, while 'Accusative' is properly reserved
for the name of a Case, and is, therefore, scientifically more
correct.

66. The principal use of the Nominative is to
denote the **subject** of a verb: 'The *earth* is the
Lord's.'

(a) Other uses are the Predic'ative, the Absolute, the In-
dependent.   These will be discussed under Part III, where a
full discussion of all the Cases will be found.

67. The principal use of the Genitive is to indi-
cate **possession:** 'A *boy's* will is the *wind's* will.'

(a) This is the Subjective use of the Genitive.   Beside it,

there is the Objective Genitive. (Instances of the latter are generally found in Pronouns ; as, ‘ *Your* election by the people, that is, ‘ the election of which you are the object.’)

68.   The Dative indicates the **indirect object** of a verb (“that to or for which anything is, or is done”): ‘ He gives his *parents* no anxiety.’

69.   The principal uses of the Accusative are to indicate the **direct object** of a verb: ‘Great princes have great *playthings*’; and to indicate the Noun (or the Pronoun) **used with a Preposition**: ‘A hundred *of* the *foe* shall be a banquet *for* the mountain *birds*.’

(*a*)   Other uses are the Predicative : ‘ They made Victoria *queen*’; and the Adverbial : ‘ He is six *years* old.’

DECLENSION.

70.   **Inflection** is the change which a word undergoes to express various relations.

(*a*)   Formerly in English, Inflection consisted in change in form ; but, since the language has lost all but a bare remnant of its endings, other devices—such as position—have come into use to help express these relations, and ‘ Inflection ’ is here used to cover the whole.

71.   **Declension** is the inflection of a Noun (or a Pronoun) to indicate its use.

(*a*)   The full Declension of a Noun (or a Pronoun) consists in its inflection to show case and number.

72.   DECLENSION OF THE NOUN.

	Sing.	Pl.	Sing.	Pl.	Sing.	Pl.
Nom.	bird	birds	boy	boys	fly	flies
Gen.	bird's	birds'	boy's	boys'	fly's	flies'
Dat.	bird	birds	boy	boys	fly	flies
Acc.	bird	birds	boy	boys	fiy	flies

	Sing.	Pl.	Sing.	Pl.	Sing.	Pl.
Nom.	man	men	deer	deer	boyhood	——
Gen.	man's	men's	deer's	deer's	boyhood's	——
Dat.	man	men	deer	deer	boyhood	——
Acc.	man	men	deer	deer	boyhood	——

Nom.	Smith	Smiths	Henry	Henrys
Gen.	Smith's	Smiths'	Henry's	Henrys'
Dat.	Smith	Smiths	Henry	Henrys
Acc.	Smith	Smiths	Henry	Henrys

(1).   The Nominative, the Dative and the Accusative are, in Nouns, distinguished by position and by context, not by endings.

(2)   The Genitive Singular is regularly formed by adding 's to the Nominative; and the Genitive Plural by adding the apostrophe to the Nominative Plural.

(a)   The old rule used the apostrophe and omitted the s for the Genitive Singular, when the stem ended in an s-sound; but the present tendency is to use the s, unless an ineuphonic combination should result, and, then, to substitute a prepositional phrase: 'Lycurgus's laws,' 'Morris's Grammar,' 'Pierce's Grammar'; but, 'For the sake *of justice*,' (not 'For justice' sake,' nor 'For justice's sake'). In time-worn expressions, such as 'the wrath of Peleus' son,' 'for conscience' sake,' the old rule is still observed.

(*b*)   Nouns whose Plural does not end in *s* take *'s* in the Genitive Plural.

(*c*)   The *'s* is attached to the last element of compounds: 'Son-in-law's house', 'Henry the First's reign.'

II.

PRONOUNS.

73.   There are six classes of Pronouns: **Personal, Demonstrative, Interrogative, Relative, Indeterminate,** and **Possessive.**

74.   **Personal Pronouns** are those that indicate immediately (without the help of an intervening name) the object to be designated.

(*a*)   Personal pronouns do not indicate gender, refer to persons or to things personified, and have forms for but two Persons, the First and the Second.

75.   DECLENSION OF PERSONAL PRONOUNS.

First Person.			**Second**	**Person.**		
			Present Form.		*Old Form.*	
	Sing.	*Plu.*	*Sing.*	*Pl.*	*Sing.*	*Pl.*
Nom.	I	we	you	you	thou	ye
*Gen.	my	our	your	your	thy	your
Dat.	me	us	you	you	thee	you
Acc.	me	us	you	you	thee	you

76.   **Demonstrative Pronouns** are those that point out definitely an object: *he, this, that, such,* &c.

(*a*)   As, in English, the *use* of a word determines to what Part of Speech it belongs, so use determines when any of these words, except *he,* which is always a Demonstrative Pronoun, belongs to this class or to some other Part of Speech.

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*When the Adjective forms lost their endings they became like the Genitives, and *my, our, thy, your,* may be parsed as Adjectives or as Genitives of the Pronouns. *Thine,* an older form of *thy,* is found before words beginning with a vowel sound.

77. DECLENSION OF DEMONSTRATIVE PRONOUNS.

The Determinative.

	Singular.			*Plu.*
	Masc.	Fem.	Neut.	All Genders.
Nom.	he	she	it	they
Gen.	his	her	its	their
Dat.	him	her	it	them
Acc.	him	her	it	them

(a) *This* refers to an object near, *that* to one remote, and *he* to an object before mentioned, without regard to its relative position, and is, therefore, the commonly used Pronoun of the Third Person.

(b) *This* and *that* lack the Genitive. *This* has for its Plural *these ; that, those.*

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78. **Interrogative Pronouns** are those used in asking questions: *who, which, what* (and, in the Bible, *whether*).

(a) *Who* is always a Pronoun, but *which* and *what* are sometimes used interrogatively as Adjectives, and they must be called Adjectives when they are so used.

(b) English of the time of the Authorized Version of the Bible used *whether* as an Interrogative Pronoun : " *Whether* of them twain did the will of his father."—*Matt.* xxi. 31.

79. DECLENSION OF INTERROGATIVE PRONOUNS.

	Sing. and Pl.	*Sing. and Pl.*	*Sing. and Pl.*
Nom.	who	which	what
Gen.	whose	————	————
Dat.	whom	which	what
Acc.	whom	which	what

80. *Who* is used of persons; *what*, of everything

else; *which*, when one, or more, is to be selected out of a number of persons or things; and *whether* was used when 'which of two' was meant.

81. **A Relative Pronoun** refers to a Noun (or to another Pronoun) in the same sentence, and joins to this Noun an expression that describes it: *who*, *which*, and *that*.

(*a*) The Noun (or the Pronoun) thus referred to is called the **Antecedent**, because it usually goes before the Relative.

(*b*) *Who* and *which* are taken from the Interrogatives, and *that* from the Demonstratives.

82. (1) *But* is sometimes used after a negative expression as a Relative, and is then equivalent to 'that . . not': 'There is *no* fireside . . . *but* has one vacant chair.'

(2) *As*, after 'such,' 'same,' is called a Relative: 'Such as I have, give I unto you'; 'Give such things as you can spare.'

(*a*) It is, however, a spurious Relative, having in the last example, for instance, 'things' for its antecedent, but joins the limiting expression to 'such'. Both these words, in fact, are in this use the result of contractions. *But* comes from ' but (Preposition) that (or those) which,' and *as*, from 'as (conjunction) those are (or, this is) which.'

83.   DECLENSION OF RELATIVE PRONOUNS.

	Sing. and Pl.	*Sing. and Pl.*	*Sing. and Pl.*
Nom.	who	which	that
Gen.	whose	(whose)	——
Dat.	whom	which	that
Acc.	whom	which	that

(*a*) *Which* is originally adjectival, and, when it uses a

Genitive, borrows it from *who*. *That* varies from the Demonstrative *that* in taking the same form for the plural as for the singular, instead of *those*. The Dative of the Relative is not often found, a Preposition with the Accusative generally being substituted.

84. **Who** refers to persons, **which** to things, and **that** to persons or things, or to both.

(*a*) Notice that the difference in Relatives is not the same as the difference in Interrogatives. *That* is also used restrictively. A further discussion will be given in Part III.

85. **As** is used only in the Nominative and the Accusative (both numbers), and **but** is used only in the Nominative (both numbers).

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86. **Indeterminate Pronouns** leave undetermined the object referred to, or the number, or some other characteristic. They are such as *who*, *what*, *whoever*, *whatever*, *whichever*, *one*, *some*, *aught*, *enough*, *any*, *many*, *few*, with many compounds arising from these and others.

87. These Pronouns occur in the Nominative and the Accusative; several are used in the Dative, and a Genitive as well is found for *one*.

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88. **Possessive Pronouns** both name the object possessed and indicate the possessor. They are derived from Genitives of Personals and of Demonstratives, and are in form double Genitives; *mine*, *ours; thine*, *yours; his*, *hers*, *its*, *theirs*.

89. They have, of course, no Genitive. All the

other cases are used in both numbers, but there is no change of form.

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90. *Pronouns are easily recognized and classified, if the definitions are well-known and understood. Such groups as Distributives and Reflexives do not constitute main classes, but are peculiar uses of certain Pronouns already classified, and include others that, by nature of their fundamental force, belong to one of the classes given and have these peculiarities.

91. **Distributives** include or exclude all objects by taking them one at a time. There are two: *each*, *either (neither)*.

(*a*) *Each* is a Demonstrative when it refers to objects definitely pointed out, but an Indeterminate when the objects referred to have not been definitely indicated.

(*b*) *Either* (*neither*) is always an Indeterminate.

92. **Reflexives** refer to the same person or thing indicated by the subject.

(*a*) The Personal Pronouns and the Determinative are sometimes used reflexively, but the Reflexives most used are compound forms derived from these: *myself, ourselves ; thyself, yourself, yourselves ; himself, herself, itself, themselves.*

(*b*) Reflexives are used in the Dative and in the Accusative.

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*It is the custom in some grammars to ignore the fact that an Adjective ever becomes a Pronoun, or *vice-versa*, and *this, that, each,* &c., are always called Adjectives, and *which, what,* &c., are always called Pronouns. This is a vicious error, and cannot be too strongly condemned. In English, the main distinction is *use,* not *form,* and it is in learning to distinguish the class by the use that the critical and the logical faculties receive their training from the science of grammar.

III.
ADJECTIVES.

93. **An Adjective** is a word used to qualify the meaning of a Noun or a Pronoun.

(*a*) There are two main classes of Adjectives: Descriptives and Limitives.

94. **Descriptives** qualify by assigning some quality: *good, sweet, white*.

95. **Limitives** qualify by limiting the meaning or the application: *all, that, fourth*.

96. Adjectives, which had at one time a fuller set of endings than the Noun, have lost them all except those for Comparison.

97. **Comparison*** is the inflection of the Adjective to denote degrees of quantity or of quality.

98. There are three **Degrees of Comparison:** *Positive, Comparative, Superlative*.

99. Adjectives are regularly compared:

I. By suffixing to the Positive **er (r)** for the Comparative, and **est (st)** for the Superlative; *tall, taller, tallest*.

(*a*) The Adjectives compared in this way are the monosyllablics; those dissyllabics ending in -*y*, in -*er*, in -*le*, in -*ble*; dissyllabics accented on the last syllable; and a few dissyllabics in which euphony admits of the termination: *holier, holiest; tenderer, tenderest ; abler, ablest ; politer, politest ; narrower, narrowest.*

II. By the help of the Adverbs **more**, for the Com-

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*Some Adjectives, such as Numerals, do not admit of Comparison, but it is idle to assert that such as 'round,' ' square,' ' perfect,' are not compared, when numerous instances of their comparison can be pointed out in good writers. Moreover, the denial of their comparison is based upon the misconception that the Comparative, or the Superlative, assigns more of a quality or of a quantity than is contained in the Positive—a false assumption.

parative, and **most**, for the Superlative: *learned, more learned, most learned.*

(*a*)   Most Adjectives are compared in this way.

100.   A few Adjectives are irregularly compared; as,

Positive.	Comparative.	Superlative.
good	better	best
little	less	least
much } many }	more	most
bad	worse	worst

(*a*)   Some of this class are defective, lacking one or more of the forms.   They are best learned from use and from the dictionary.

101.   A descending scale of Comparison is formed by the help of the Adverbs *less* and *least: beautiful, less beautiful, least beautiful.*

102.   The **Comparative Degree** institutes a comparison between two objects, or sets of objects, and assigns more or less of a quality or a quantity to one than is contained in the other,

103.   The **Superlative Degree** institutes a comparison among three or more objects, or sets of objects, and assigns to one of them the highest, or the least, degree of a quality or a quantity to be found among them.

IV.
VERBS.

104.   Verbs are divided, with respect to their use, into two classes:

I.   Transitive Verbs;   2.   Intransitive Verbs.

105. A **Transitive** Verb expresses an action or a feeling that is directed towards some object: 'He *kicked* the ball.'

106. An **Intransitive** Verb expresses a state or condition, or that action or feeling which is not directed towards some thing: 'It *rains*'; 'God *is* love.'

107. Each of these classes is subdivided into two classes: *Complete* and *Incomplete.*

108. A **Complete Transitive** Verb is one in which the predication is rendered complete by the object: 'He *felled* the *tree*.'

109. An **Incomplete Transitive** Verb is one in which the predication is completed by a complementary word which the verb affirms about the direct object: 'They *made Victoria queen*.'

110. A **Complete Intransitive** Verb is one in which the predication is rendered complete in the verb itself: 'He *ran* away'; 'The child *speaks*.'

111. An **Incomplete Intransitive** Verb is one in which the predication is completed by a *complement* which the verb affirms of the subject: 'He *looks* tired.'

112. The **Complement** may be a Noun, a Pronoun, or an Adjective, and the Noun may be in the form of a word or a phrase or a clause.

113. A large number of Verbs may be used either transitively or intransitively, and some may be used either in a complete or in an incomplete sense: 'The horse *kicked* the hostler,' 'The ruffians *kicked* the traveler black and blue'; 'The horse *kicks*'; 'God *is*, and *is* a *rewarder*,' &c.

114. Verbs have the following properties: *Voice, Mood, Tense, Number, Person.*

A. 115. **Voice** is an inflection of the Verb to show that the subject of the Verb is either the doer, or else the recipient of the action expressed by the verb.

116. There are two Voices:

I. The Active. 2. The Passive.

117. The **Active Voice** represents the subject as *doing* or *being:* 'I *hear* a *voice*'; 'By that sin the angels *fell*'; 'Her mother *seemed* the youngest.'

118. The **Passive Voice** represents the subject as a recipient of the action expressed by the verb: 'The ball *was struck.*'

(*a*) Occasional examples are found in which the subject is indirectly the recipient of the action: ' *He* was given a book ', instead of ' A *book* was given him.' This idiom is peculiar to English.

B. 119. **Mood** signifies *manner of assertion.* There are three Moods :

1. Indicative ; 2. Subjunctive ; 3. Imperative.

120. The **Indicative** is used in the statement of facts, in questions and in conditions considered as facts.

121. The **Subjunctive** is used to state, as conceived in the mind, a thing that does not actually exist: 'Though he *slay* me, yet will I trust Him.' (He is not slaying me.)

122. The **Imperative** utters a command, request, exhortation.

C.   123.   **Tenses**   are   inflections   of   the   Verb that enable it to assign time.

124.   *Time* has two properties :

1. **Order of Time**—Past, Present, Future ;

2. **Kind of Time**— Imperfect $\begin{cases} \text{Aorist,} \\ \text{Continuous;} \end{cases}$

   Perfect $\begin{cases} \text{Aorist,} \\ \text{Continuous.} \end{cases}$

(*a*) The terms 'Imperfect', 'Perfect', and 'Continuous' sufficiently explain themselves.   By ' Aorist ' is meant that Kind of Time in which the occurrence is stressed while duration is left indeterminate.

(*b*) 'Order' combined with 'Kind' gives twelve possible Tenses.   All these are found only in the Indicative Active. Elsewhere, either the use does not call for all tenses, or else combinations would be awkward.

D.   125.   The Verb has **two Numbers**—*Singular* and *Plural*—corresponding with Number in Nouns.

126.   The Verb is inflected* in each Number for **three Persons**—*First, Second* and *Third*—corresponding with Person in Nouns.

———————

127.   Besides the pure forms of the Verb, discussed above, there are others, partaking of the nature of other Parts of Speech.   These are the **Infinitives,** the **Gerunds,** and the **Participles.**

(*a*) These constitute the *non-finite* forms--not limited to a subject—in contradistinction to the three Moods, which are included in *finite* forms—those limited to a subject.

(*b*) The non-finite forms express only *Kind* of Time.

* The definition of *inflection* should be kept in mind ; it does not necessarily mean *change of form.*

128.   Both the **Infinitive** and the **Gerund** partake
of the nature of the Verb and the Noun, and are
therefore, noun-forms of the Verb.

(*a*) The Gerund ends in *ing* and differs somewhat in con-
struction from the Infinitive.   Compare with the Latin Ge-
rund and Infinitive.

129.   The **Participle** partakes of the nature of the
Verb and the Adjective.

CONJUGATION.

130.   **Conjugation** is inflection of the Verb to show
Voice, Mood, Tense, Number, and Person.

131.   There are two Conjugations, the **Regular**
and the **Irregular**, distinguished by the manner of
forming the principal parts.

132.   The **Principal Parts** of a Verb are the *Pres-
ent Infinitive* Active, the *Past Indicative* Active,
and the *Past Participle*.

133.   The Regular Conjugation forms the Past
Indicative and the Past Participle by adding (**e**)**d** or
t to the Infinitive : fell, fell**ed**, fell**ed**;

$$\text{learn,} \begin{cases} \text{learn}ed, \\ \text{learn}t, \end{cases} \begin{cases} \text{learn}ed, \\ \text{learn}t. \end{cases}$$

(*a*) The *t* is used when the ^(*final*) ~~first~~ stem-consonant is pro-
nounced voiceless.   This, owing to the wretched English or-
thography, more frequently occurs with the sound than with
the symbol : work*ed* (work*t*), stopped (stop*t*), &c.

(*b*) To this Conjugation belongs the great body of English
Verbs, and all new-made Verbs follow it.

134.   The Irregular Conjugation embraces those

Verbs that form their Principal Parts by *vowel-change* (Old Verbs); some that have come from the Regular Conjugation because of irregular changes that have arisen; and a few anomalous forms from the Old Verbs (Preterite-Presents): *give, gave given; teach, taught, taught; can, could.*

(*a*) The treacherous orthography often fails to register changes that have taken place: *mean, meant ; read*, read (red).

(*b*) The *Preterite-Presents* are Verbs whose past tense (Preterite) acquired a present signification, and which formed new Pasts. They are *can, may, must, ought, shall,* and *wot* (antiquated). *Dare* has become regular, except in 3rd sing., pres. ind., when it is followed by a negative and an infinitive. *Need*, a regular Verb, follows its example, by analogy, it would appear. *Will* may be included here, since it is derived from a past subjunctive form.

(*c*) The Principal Parts of *be* are derived from different stems.

135. The English Verb has only two **simple** tenses ; all the rest are **compound**, formed by the help of auxiliaries.

136. The **Auxiliaries** are used to help express time (and in periphrastic forms, mood), and to conjugate the Passive Voice.

137. **Shall** and **will** are Auxiliaries of the Future, **have** (and its forms) of the Perfect Tenses, **be** (and its forms) of the Passive Voice, and of Continuous Time.

(*a*) It is unnecessary to give the conjugation of the Auxiliaries separately, as they will be given in the Regular Conjugation. In the following paradigm, the forms usually given are in *italics.*

ACTIVE VOICE.—Indicative Mood.

	Imperfect		Perfect	
	Aorist.	**Continuous.**	**Aorist.**	**Continuous.**
Present.	*Singular.* 1. I help, 2. Thou helpest, 3. He helps; *Plural.* 1. We help, 2. You help, 3. They help.	*Singular.* 1. I am helping, 2. Thou art helping, 3. He is helping; *Plural.* 1. We are helping, 2. You are helping 3. They are helping.	*Singular.* 1. I have helped, 2. Thou hast helped, 3. He has helped; *Plural.* 1. We have helped, 2. You have helped, 3. They have helped.	*Singular.* 1. I have been helping, 2. Thou hast been helping, 3. He has been helping; *Plural.* 1. We have been helping, 2. You have been helping, 3. They have been helping.
Past.	*Singular.* 1. I helped, 2. Thou helpedst, 3. He helped; *Plural.* 1. We helped, 2. You helped, 3. They helped.	*Singular.* 1. I was helping, 2. Thou wast helping, 3. He was helping; *Plural.* 1. We were helping, 2. You were helping, 3. They were helping.	*Singular.* 1. I had helped, 2. Thou hadst helped, 3. He had helped; *Plural.* 1. We had helped, 2. You had helped, 3. They had helped.	*Singular.* 1. I had been helping, 2. Thou hadst been helping, 3. He had been helping; *Plural.* 1. We had been helping, 2. You had been helping, 3. They had been helping.
Future.	*Singular.* 1. I shall help, 2. Thou wilt help, 3. He will help; *Plural.* 1. We shall help, 2. You will help, 3. They will help.	*Singular.* 1. I shall be helping, 2. Thou wilt be helping, 3. He will be helping; *Plural.* 1. We shall be helping, 2. You will be helping, 3. They will be helping.	*Singular.* 1. I shall have helped, 2. Thou wilt have helped, 3. He will have helped; *Plural.* 1. We shall have helped, 2. You will have helped, 3. They will have helped.	*Singular.* 1. I shall have been helping, 2. Thou wilt have been helping, 3. He will have been helping; *Plural.* 1. We shall have been helping, 2. You will have been helping, 3. They will have been helping.

ACTIVE VOICE.—Subjunctive Mood.

	Imperfect.		Perfect.	
	Aorist.	**Continuous.**	**Aorist.**	**Continuous.**
Present.	*Singular.* 1. I help, 2. Thou help, 3. He help; *Plural.* 1. We help, 2. You help, 3. They help.	*Singular.* 1. I be helping, 2. Thou be helping, 3. He be helping; *Plural.* 1. We be helping, 2. You be helping, 3. They be helping.	*Singular.* 1. I have helped, 2. Thou have helped, 3. He have helped; *Plural.* 1. We have helped, 2. You have helped, 3. They have helped.	*Singular.* 1. I have been helping, 2. Thou have been helping, 3. He have been helping; *Plural.* 1. We have been helping, 2. You have been helping, 3. They have been helping.
Past.	*Singular.* 1. I helped, 2. Thou helped, 3. He helped; *Plural.* 1. We helped, 2. You helped, 3. They helped.	*Singular.* 1. I were helping, 2. Thou were helping, 3. He were helping; *Plural.* 1. We were helping, 2. You were helping, 3. They were helping.	*Singular.* 1. I had helped, 2. Thou had helped, 3. He had helped; *Plural.* 1. We had helped, 2. You had helped, 3. They had helped.	*Singular.* 1. I had been helping, 2. Thou had been helping, 3. He had been helping; *Plural.* 1. We had been helping, 2. You had been helping, 3. They had been helping.

ACTIVE VOICE.—Imperative Mood.

	Imperfect		Perfect	
	Aorist.	Continuous.	Aorist.	Continuous.
Present.	*Singular.* 2. help (thou), 3. help [he]; *Plural.* help (you, ye), help [they].			
Future.	*Singular.* 2. Thou shalt help, 3. He shall help; *Plural.* You shall help, They shall help.			

NON-FINITE FORMS.

Infinitives.

	Aorist.	Continuous.	Aorist.	Continuous.
*Present.	*(to) help.*	(to) be helping.	*(to) have helped.*	(to) have been help-ing.

Gerunds.

	Aorist.	Continuous.	Aorist.	Continuous.
*Present.	helping.		having helped.	having been helping.

Participles.

	Aorist.	Continuous.	Aorist.	Continuous.
*Present.	*helping.*		*having helped.*	having been helping.

* *Present* only in the sense that these forms date from the time of the principal verb.

PASSIVE VOICE.—Indicative Mood.

	Imperfect		Perfect	
	Aorist.	Continuous.	Aorist.	Continuous.
Present.	*Singular.* 1. I am helped, 2. Thou art helped, 3. He is helped; *Plural.* 1. We are helped, 2. You are helped, 3. They are helped.	*Singular.* 1. I am being helped, 2. Thou art being helped, 3. He is being helped; *Plural.* 1. We are being helped, 2. You are being helped, 3. They are being helped.	*Singular.* 1. I have been helped, 2. Thou hast been helped, 3. He has been helped; *Plural.* 1. We have been helped, 2. You have been helped, 3. They have been helped.	
Past.	*Singular.* 1. I was helped, 2. Thou wast helped, 3. He was helped; *Plural.* 1. We were helped, 2. You were helped, 3. They were helped.	*Singular.* 1. I was being helped, 2. Thou wast being helped, 3. He was being helped; *Plural.* 1. We were being helped, 2. You were being helped, 3. They were being helped.	*Singular.* 1. I had been helped, 2. Thou hadst been helped, 3. He had been helped; *Plural.* 1. We had been helped, 2. You had been helped, 3. They had been helped.	
Future.	*Singular.* 1. I shall be helped, 2. Thou wilt be helped, 3. He will be helped; *Plural.* 1. We shall be helped, 2. You will be helped, 3. They will be helped.		*Singular.* 1. I shall have been helped, 2. Thou wilt have been helped, 3. He will have been helped; *Plural.* 1. We shall have been helped, 2. You will have been helped, 3. They will have been helped.	

PASSIVE VOICE.—Subjunctive Mood.

		Imperfect.		Perfect.	
	Aorist.	Continuous.	Aorist.	Continuous.	
Present.	*Singular.* 1. I be helped, 2. Thou be helped, 3. He be helped; *Plural.* 1. We be helped, 2. You be helped, 3. They be helped.		*Singular.* 1. I have been helped, 2. Thou have been helped, 3. He have been helped; *Plural.* 1. We have been helped, 2. You have been helped, 3. They have been helped.		
Past.	*Singular.* 1. I were helped, 2. Thou were helped, 3. He were helped; *Plural.* 1. We were helped, 2. You were helped, 3. They were helped.	*Singular.* 1. I were being helped, 2. Thou were being helped, 3. He were being helped; *Plural.* 1. We were being helped, 2. You were being helped, 3. They were being helped.	*Singular.* 1. I had been helped, 2. Thou had been helped, 3. He had been helped; *Plural.* 1. We had been helped, 2. You had been helped, 3. They had been helped.		

PASSIVE VOICE.—Imperative Mood.

	Imperfect.		Perfect.	
	Aorist.	Continuous.	Aorist.	Continuous.
Present.	*Singular.* 2. Be (thou) helped, 3. Be he helped; *Plural.* 2. Be (ye) helped, 3. Be they helped.			
Future.	*Singular.* 2. Thou shalt be helped, 3. He shall be helped; *Plural.* You shall be helped, They shall be helped.			

NON-FINITE FORMS.
Infinitives.

Present.	*(to) be helped.*		*(to) have been helped.*	

Gerunds.

Present.	being helped.		having been helped.	

Participles.

Present.	*being helped.*		*having been helped.*	
Past.	*helped.*			

138.   The **Irregular Conjugation** differs only in
the Principal Parts, and it is, therefore, unnecessary
to give a paradigm of it.

139.   It must not be supposed that every Verb
has all the forms given in the paradigm; its signifi-
cation may deny it a part of these.   This is particu-
larly the case with Intransitives and with Defective
Verbs such as the Preterite-Presents.

140.   Grammarians insist upon *shall* for the First
Person of the Future, and *will* for the Second and
Third.   This holds good for principal clauses, but
the ground upon which the rule is based loses force
in most subordinate clauses.

141.   It should be noted that forms in the Sub-
junctive Mood do not change for Person and Number.

142.   Instances of Imperatives in the Third Person
are infrequent, the Imperative generally being sub-
stituted by the Subjunctive (in an Optative sense), or
by 'let' and the Infinitive.

(*a*)   The Imperative and the Subjunctive are distinguished
by position.   With the Imperative, the subject follows the
Verb; with the Subjunctive, it precedes: '*Come one, come
all*'; 'The *Lord be praised*', 'The *Lord grant* thee the desire
of thy heart'.

V.

ADVERBS.

143.   Adverbs are for the most part derived from
Nouns, Pronouns and Adjectives, many being merely
oblique Cases of these (the Adjectives were at one
time declined): *needs, once* (Genitives); *whilom, seldom*

(Datives); *why* (Instrumental case of 'who'); &c.
A number are formed by composition: *some-times*
(Acc.), *bitter-ly* (formed from Adj. by suffix). Some
were formed from Adjectives by the suffix *-e*, and
when this *-e* was lost they regained the Adjective
form. Besides these, other Adjectives have come
to be so used, especially in poetry.

144. There are **six** classes of Adverbs:

i. Adverbs of **Place**: *here, down, thence*, &c.;

ii. Adverbs of **Time**: *then, soon, twice*, &c.;

iii. Adverbs of **Manner**: *how, thus, beautifully*, &c.;

iv. Adverbs of **Degree** (**measure**): *much, too, partly*,
&c.;

v. Adverbs of **Cause**: *why, therefore, wherefore*,
&c.,

vi. Modal Adverbs: *verily, not, no, yes*, &c.

(*a*) Modal Adverbs are such as show the way in which the
thought is conceived, or is to be taken. They qualify, not the
scope of the *meaning* of a word or an expression, but the *man-
ner of its application*.

(*b*) Adverbs of the other classes may be used as Modal
Adverbs. Moreover, Adverbs of this class may qualify the
application of a Noun—not its *meaning*—as, ' *Even* Homer
sometimes nods.'

145. The only inflection possessed by Adverbs
is **Comparison**.

(*a*) As with Adjectives, so with Adverbs, not all are com-
pared.

146. A very few use the endings **er, est**, to form
the Comparative and the Superlative, as *soon, sooner*,

soonest, the majority using **more** and **most.** Several
are irregularly compared, as *well, better, best*.

147. The Adverb **there** is often used as a 'dum-
my', simply to hold the subject's place in the
sentence, and then loses its adverbial force.

(*a*) Inversion of subject and verb has certain uses in Eng-
lish, as, Inversion to indicate a question. To distinguish from
these the inversion of verb and subject in order to bring the
subject near long attributes, *there* is put in the place of the
subject, and is called an **expletive.**

CONNECTIVES.

148 A **Phrase** is a word-group that does not
contain a verb.

149. A **Clause** is a word-group that contains a
verb.

150. There are two kinds of Clauses: *Principal*
and *Subordinate*.

151. A **Principal Clause** has no grammatical de-
pendence upon any other word: 'Time flies.'

152. A **Subordinate Clause** occupies to some word
a relation of dependence: 'The man *whom I saw*.

(*a*) The Subordinate Clause does duty as a Noun, an Ad-
jective, or an Adverb.

153. There is inter-relation between word and
word of the sentence. This is in part expressed by
inflection, and, where inflection does not serve the
purpose, a set of words called **Connectives** is used.

154. There are two classes of **Connectives**: those

connecting elements of **equal rank**; those connecting elements of **unequal rank**.

(*a*) When the elements are of lower rank that which is joined to the other is a modifier of the other, in some way dependent upon it.

155. There are two kinds of Connectives: *Prepositions* and *Conjunctions*.

VI.

PREPOSITIONS.

156. The elements connected by Prepositions are always of unequal rank. In 'land of Israel', 'of Israel' tells what 'land' (that is, qualifies 'land'), therefore, is dependent upon it and is of lower rank.

(*a*) Prepositions were originally adverbial forms, and were at first placed with Nouns to make clearer the relation to be expressed, and this use increased as cases were lost. They are, therefore, substitutes for case-endings.

(*b*) They were at first usually prefixed to the Verb; next, they were detached from the Verb and stood away from the Noun, often toward the end of the clause; finally they were placed before the Noun, whose relation they helped to show.

(*c*) The last is the ordinary construction in Modern English, but the second is of frequent occurrence, and there are remnants of the first: 'The man that he came *with*;' 'He *with*stood me (where *with* has the old sense of 'against').

(*d*) Prepositions are occasionally post-positive, generally in poetry: 'The fields *among*', 'The whole world *over*'.

157. To the original Prepositions have been added a number from various sources. Some are

compounds, as *unto*, *beyond;* others are derived from Nouns, Adjectives, and Verbs: *across*, *beside; along*, *aslant; save, during, concerning*.

158. When two Prepositions are used together, the second introduces a Noun-phrase that is in the Accusative case with the first. In 'he came *from over* the sea', 'over the sea' names the place, and is, therefore, a Noun-phrase. This construction is similar to 'at my *friend's*,' where *friend's* is a Genitive, used to name a place. (Compare with the Greek *en Haidou*.)

159. It is an error to say that Prepositions take, or govern, an object; only those words that express *action* can have an object, for an object is an end to be reached. A Noun is put in the Accusative case to express a certain relation, and a Preposition is put with it to make clearer what that relation is. For example, in Latin the Preposition *in* is used with either the Accusative or the Ablative, and the case is not governed, or determined, by the Preposition, but by the Verb.

VII.

CONJUNCTIONS.

160. Prepositions can connect only elements of *unequal* rank, and in this case only *Nouns* (whether they be words, phrases or clauses), or *Pronouns*, with some other word; but it often becomes necessary to join together elements of *equal* rank, also

elements of *unequal* rank in which the subordinate element is a clause *of any kind.* Hence:

161. There are two classes of Conjunctions: *Co-ordinate* and *Subordinate.*

162. **Co-ordinate Conjunctions** connect elements of equal rank, whether words, phrases, or clauses.

(*a*) The principal Co-ordinate Conjunctions are *and, also; or, either—or, neither—nor, else; but, yet, however; for; therefore, hence, then;* &c. Many phrases are used for this purpose.

163. **Subordinate Conjunctions** introduce clauses that qualify, or depend upon, some word.

(*a*) Subordinate Conjunctions are derived from Relative and Demonstrative terms (Pronominals) and from Prepositions, or from these in composition with other words, and from Verbs: *after* (Prep.), *when (Rel.), that* (Dem.), *be-cause (Prep. and Noun), if (<a Noun ?), notwithstanding , except, provided* (Verbs).

(*b*) There are four classes of Subordinate Conjunctions: *Time, Place, Manner, Cause;* but the discussion of these belongs properly to Analysis.

VIII.

INTERJECTIONS.

164. An **Interjection** is a word, or a phrase, used to express feeling.

(*a*) Interjections do not have grammatical connection with other words in a sentence, and do not, strictly, constitute a Part of Speech. but it is convenient thus to classify them.

(*b*) Among the most common Interjections are *O, oh, ah, alas, lo, well, why* (pronounced *wy*), *tut, hollo.*

APPENDIX.

——

Rules for Parsing will be found in Part III, when that appears. The rules usually found in grammars may readily be adapted, and with the following additions will suffice for drill-work.

1. Adjectives are used in three ways: *Attributively*, *Appositively*, *Predicatively*.

2. An Adjective in the **Attributive use** imposes upon its Noun a restrictive—that is, a necessary— qualification: 'A *white* horse is hard to keep clean.'

(*a*) The usual position of the Adjective in this use is immediately before the Noun, always following the Articles and all other Adjectives derived from pronominal stems, such as *that, such*, &c.

(*b*) It may follow its Noun when the Article goes with it: 'Alexander *the Great.*'

3. An Adjective in the **Appositive use** adds an explanatory qualification that is given, not as necessary to the truth of the assertion, but merely for information: 'We three children, *small* and *merry.*'

(*a*) In this use, the Adjective may be prepositive or postpositive, but it does not come between the Noun and any one of the class of words mentioned in 2 (*a*).

4. An Adjective in the **Predicative use** is affirmed by the Verb about the subject or the object: 'Life is *earnest*', 'They call me *great.*'

(*a*) The Pronoun, with which an Attributive Adjective is

rarely used, may be qualified by an Appositive or a Predicative Adjective with perfect freedom.

5. Hence:

I. An Attributive Adjective imposes upon its noun a restrictive qualification.

II. An Appositive Adjective adds an explanatory qualification.

III. A Predicative Adjective is affirmed by the Verb about the subject or the object.

And:

IV. A Preposition shows the use of a Noun.

6. As Infinitives, Gerunds and Participles partake of two natures, they should be parsed according to each.

7. Take care to parse the Infinitive separately from its auxiliary till the pupil understands the construction.

Below, a model for parsing is suggested. Some may find another method more satisfactory, but the pupil should by no means be allowed to diagram a sentence till he can parse it. It is too tedious and burdensome to require *all* the details about every word; just those points should be brought out that are logically important; for example, when any thing is dependent upon number and person, they should be mentioned; otherwise, omitted.

A few sentences are given to be parsed. These should be supplemented by selections made by the teacher, who should classify and present them in such order as he finds best for the pupils, and the pupils should be required to bring to be parsed

sentences of such classes till they thoroughly understand them. The effort to find sentences of the required description is in itself good drill in logical parsing.

He—Dem. Pron., nom., subj. of *shall*.

that—Rel. Pron., nom., subj. of *endureth*.

endureth—Intr. compl. Verb, indic. mood.

to—Prep., shows the use of *end*.

the—Attr. Adj., limits *end*.

end—Noun, acc. with *to*, which joins it to *endureth;* the phrase 'to the end' is therefore adverbial.

shall—Trans. compl. Verb, ind. mood.

be—Inf. { Intrans. incompl. Verb; Noun, acc., object of *shall*.

saved—Part. { From trans. compl. Verb; Predic. Adj., affirmed about *he*.

1. Earth with her thousand voices praises God.
2. We knew it to be him.
3. The sun seemed shorn of his beams.
4. His daily teachers had been woods and rills.
5. Waiting till the west wind blows,
   The freighted clouds at anchor lie.
6. We are not weak if we make a proper use of those means which the God of nature hath placed in our power.
7. He that fights and runs away,
   May live to fight another day.
8. Now, night descending, the proud scene was o'er.
9. When I did first impart my love to you,
   I freely told you all the wealth I had
   Ran in these veins.
10. Duller shouldst thou be than the fat weed,
    That roots itself in ease on Lethe [*Lethe's*] wharf,
    Wouldst thou not stir in this.
11. These honors bring happy Britain peace.
12. Your wife would give you little thanks for that, if she were by to hear you make the offer.

13. Had ancient times conspired to disallow
    What then was new, what had been ancient now?
14. But that I am forbid
    To tell the secrets of my prison house,
    I could a tale unfold whose lightest word
    Would harrow up thy soul.
15. Seeing is believing.
16. Our island home is far beyond the sea.
17. Your *If* is the only peace-maker: much virtue in *If*.
18. Now blessings light on him that first invented sleep : it covers a man all over, thoughts and all, like a cloak.
19. Many a morning on the moorlands did we hear the copses ring.
20. I will work in my own sphere, nor wish it other than it is.
21. Flee from the wrath to come.
22. I heard him declaim.
23. The gods are hard to reconcile.
24. The rain threatening to fall, we left.
25. He is worth a million of dollars.
26. My friend is about to leave me.
27. A French King was brought prisoner to London.
28. Death grinned horrible a ghastly smile.
29. Haste thee, Nymph, and bring with thee Jest and youthful Jollity.
30. The King of England's crown could not repay the loss.
31. He was seen to follow slowly after them.
32. While on the coast, they went fishing.
33. There is no doubt of his being a great statesman.
34. By being an obedient child, you will secure the approbation of your parents.
35. He hopes to merit heaven by making earth a hell.
36. Some people never will distinguish between predicting an eclipse and conspiring to bring one on.
37. Returning were as tedious as go o'er.
38. Cursed be he that setteth light by his father or his mother.
39. None but the brave deserve the fair.
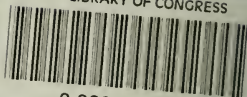40. Who steals my purse steals trash